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## SCHEMERS.

It appears to have been provided, that, while the bulk of mankind concentrate their energies upon the various established tasks which they have chosen, a few should be kept salient for the discovery of new powers and properties in the material world, by which the rest may profit. The salient few are usually of such a frame of mind as apparently to incapacitate them for regular and monotonous application to ordinary employments. They have no patience with modes of operation which have been followed of old: no common and familiar duties have charms for them. They must either strike out new occupations for themselves, or devise new ways of following old ones: there must at the very least be some improvement in the results, to reconcile them to enter the same paths with other men. Nor, when any new plan has been schemed out, will they continue long to act upon it. Their own novelties soon grow as dim as the old modes meant to be supplanted; and long ere other men have awaked to a sense of the merit of any one of their schemes, it is ten to one that they have themselves lost all regard for it, in their enthusiasm respecting something else.

The schemer—for we must endeavour to impersonate this turn of mind—is usually to be recognised by a slovenly and precipitate, yet abstracted manner. His hat is rarely brushed, and his coat is more apt than the coats of other men of his condition, to have a hole in it, either candidly displaying the linen below, or clumsily tacked together by a pin. His beard seems—impossible as we may suppose the fact to be—at all times in its second day. He walks quickly, with his eyes turned towards the ground, and his hands thrust into his pockets. He mutters to himself, and occasionally stops short to trace a calculation on the gravel with the point of his foot. He invariably walks past the place of his destination, or proceeds in an opposite or tangential course. Should any one overtake him, and fall into conversation, he evidently feels uneasy, and shows, by the inappropriateness of his answers, that his thoughts are of a very different kind from those of his companion. In ordinary conversation, if he gives himself at all up to it, he is never less than one topic behind, which he makes known by breaking in, in the midst of one matter of discourse, with a remark which has been suggested to him by something past and gone ten minutes before, and upon which his mind has, during that time, been fructuating. Mention to him the passage of Hannibal across the Alps, and he will demonstrate how, even without the aid of vinegar, but merely by filling up the chasms with stones taken from the heights, the business could have been accomplished. His pockets are generally filled with inexplicable little wooden models of machinery, and linear plans and measurements, which the least allusion to his favourite pursuits will cause him to pull out and exhibit, with a flow of colloquial illustration almost overpowering. Or if he have no plan or model applicable to the subject introduced, he has at least a bit of ever-ready chalk, with which he will draw you out the whole scheme upon a gate-post, or, if nothing better be at hand, upon the front of his boot. This done, oblivious of the ornament he has added to his person, he proceeds along his way, kicking before him a transverse section.

A genuine schemer is at all times and in all circumstances true to his propensity. Plant him in the midst of a large city, on the top of Caucasus, in the remotest of the Orcaides, he will pant with equal ardour for the means of operating extensively upon the things around him; and whatever these may be, it will be surprising if, in a short time, some of them do not put on a different aspect. Every thing that

can be changed into a new shape or purpose, every thing that can be moved, will be changed and moved accordingly. His mind, like the seed, germinates in any position. His constructive power is at no time so active as when confined in his chamber with sickness. In that situation, receiving no check from the daylight world, which at other times is perpetually twitching him back to dull realities, he gives himself entirely up to his favourite mental exercise. Schemes drift across his brain almost too rapidly for his own consciousness, and still each that lingers long enough to be surveyed, seems for the time the best. A certain mechanical schemer, having broken his leg, was confined to a sofa for six weeks. But the surgeon, who had bound down the one extremity of his person, had no ligatures which could avail in constraining the other. A block, with a wheel revolving at an invisible rate of speed upon the top of it, was the only thing to which our schemer was comparable. His wife, who was then almost his only confidante, afterwards declared that he had devised as many schemes in six weeks as would, in her humble apprehension, have required all the mechanicians in the world as many years to execute. When he resumed his feet, it was found that some mistake had been made in the setting of the limb, so as to cause a slight lameness. It was with difficulty that he was prevented in these circumstances from breaking the bone over again, in order to demonstrate to the surgeon a superior mode of procedure. Being driven from this, he could not be prevented from constructing an odd-looking piece of machinery, which he fitted to his limbs, in order to equalise them, and aid him, as he said, in walking. It was found that not only did this make him a kind of world's wonder, but actually obstructed the natural powers of locomotion which were left to him, so that he could not walk so much by a mile in the hour as if he had trusted to his feet. But this was nothing to a genuine schemer, who would rather at any time do half work with something new, than whole work with one of the hackneyed and worn-out engines of the common world.

Schemers may be divided into two classes—those who confine themselves to their own professed occupations, and those who do not. The former can be entrusted with no piece of work, without seizing the opportunity to try an experiment, the convenience of the employer being of no importance in their eyes compared with the interests of science. Even in mending things, it is ten to one that the schemer ends by transforming them into something entirely apart from their original character and purpose, so that a sofa, perhaps, comes back (and to a childless mansion, too) in the shape of a cradle, or a lady's card-case metamorphosed into a snuff-box. If you send him your watch to be fitted with a new glass, you will probably find it, three days afterwards, lying in a hundred pieces in a saucer, the schemer having observed something in the work which struck his fancy, and the nature of which he could not otherwise ascertain. If employed to erect a pier, you must not be surprised at the curious fantastic slimness of the structure, or that the ancient sea sweeps away the novelty next winter with a whisk of its tail. If employed to lay a piece of pavement, you could scarcely expect him to use ordinary stones: more probably he would try iron, or wood—not impossibly, leather. This class of schemers are probably the happiest, for their professions generally furnish them with the means of gratifying their propensity, without a complete forfeiture of the means of livelihood. The other class are not in general so fortunate. Ill-affected from the first to their ostensible occupation, they either neglect it altogether, or give it barely enough of their

attention to preserve decent appearances. We shall suppose one who exercises the calling of a surgeon-dentist. To the world at large he is of course known in this capacity alone. Little does the world imagine how different a man he is in reality. His real business—the business of his heart—is the contrivance of curious cuckoo clocks, with sentinels walking in front of them, and which tell the day of the year as well as the hour of the day. Or he is given up to the devising of fictitious limbs and hands to supply the loss of those composed of bone and muscle—not ordinary cork legs and wooden hands, but legs which will almost go of themselves, and hands which use knives and forks with the aptness of life itself. Or he is perhaps a lost astronomer, and does nothing the whole day but grind the lenses of reflecting telescopes. Perhaps he is every thing by turns, and no sooner has completed an instrument by which you can almost see the people in the moon, than he is off to something else—an engine for quenching fires on a novel principle—a boat to sail under water—a new kind of gun carriages for ships of the line—a process for preserving iron waterpipes in the streets from rusting—a balloon with sails and a rudder—or a bridge for a railway across the British Channel. In the midst of some serious professional duty, for which he is to obtain a proper remuneration, the least temptation to his ruling propensity oversets him. An old umbrella is left in his lobby. He sees it in passing. That instant ceases all application to his proper tasks. The old umbrella becomes for the time the engrossing subject of his mind. The brass ring, the hollow top, the handle, the whalebone, the ferules, and the tube, can all be turned to account. And he does not rest till he has converted the dilapidated fence of showers into a new kind of steam-engine, an air-pump, or a machine for kindling matches.

The schemer is apt to forget, in the midst of his dreams, that his favourite pursuits are not the best qualified to keep up a regular supply of what the ladies call house-money, without which a domestic establishment is likely to become ere long any thing but a scene of philosophic ease. Hence schemers are generally remarked to be "bad family men"—and such they are. The schemer ought never to be married. No lady who has the least regard for her own comfort should unite herself to any person in the least addicted to so fatal an enthusiasm. It is enough if the schemer has by himself to encounter the evils incident to his peculiar frame of mind. We might censure such a man, or we might treat him with ridicule, if we could forget that, after all, he fulfils an useful part in the great design of providence, and, in so doing, has as good a general claim upon the respect of the community as any other class which it contains. We may sorrow for the distresses of the schemer, and of those connected with him, but we cannot regard him as the proper object of any scornful feeling. If some men had not devoted themselves to schemes for the facilitation of labour, and the general improvement of the human condition, the great herd of contented labourers would never have done any thing of the kind, nor been enabled to execute one-half of the kinds of work upon which they are at present employed, and in performing which they think themselves so much more meritorious than their scheming and probably poor neighbour. It is not in human nature, we are aware, to yield much respect to any thing which appears of a hazardous or unpractical nature: there is a ready-money wisdom which, however small the sums in which it is doled out, goes farther with the bulk of mankind than millions expressed by the assignats of philosophy. Yet, if we reflect that these men act under an impulse of their nature, which

our Creator has wisely made blind, as by no other means could any have been induced to spare time or devote pains for the use of the rest, it will be difficult to persist in regarding them with contempt, even in instances where no advantage has been seen to flow from their devices. It may at the same time be allowed, that, if schemers would so far subject their ruling propensity to the guidance of reason, as to realise even one per cent. of their schemes, more especially if of a nature bearing immediately upon the convenience of mankind—if they would more frequently develop such latent bounties of nature as coal gas and the steam-engine—we might expect to see their general and individual characters much more highly estimated. How often have our greatest modern improvements been hinted, and suggested, and even patented, by successive schemers, ere they were made subservient to our use! It is common to search back for the early and obscure suggesters, in order to bestow honour upon their names, when, in truth, the man most truly deserving of public reverence is the *last* schemer—he who finally, by a successful struggle with thwarting circumstances, reduced the idea to practice, and gave it ripe and ready into the hands of his fellow-men.

### EDUCATION—STUDY OF CHEMISTRY.

BY DR D. B. REID.

In an age, whose chief feature is a searching spirit of inquiry into all our institutions, it is not surprising that a subject of such vast importance as Education should have attracted an unusual degree of attention, and that sounder views regarding its real nature and objects should be daily gaining ground. This question, of such vital interest to the well-being of society, has been broadly entered into, not only with the view of improving details, but of placing the whole system on a more rational foundation, in better accordance with the spirit of the age, and the constitution of the human mind.

Nor is this extraordinary movement of the public mind regarding education more important than the methods which have been adopted for the diffusion of knowledge; it is every where simplified, divested as much as possible of technicalities, presented in a clear and intelligible language, and brought home to the concerns of men. So far from being superficial, it is often of the most solid character, being neither clogged with the details, nor encumbered with the distinctions, of complicated systems; it goes more directly to leading truths and fundamental principles. As much real information is frequently conveyed in a twopenny pamphlet as used to be contained in a folio; and popular lectures on the most important branches of human knowledge are now open to all classes, so that every one has an opportunity of becoming acquainted with subjects which in former times were accessible only to those who could afford to devote years to study and seclusion. In short, well-constituted minds only require to be set a-going; if they are put in the right tract, and the materials of thinking afforded them, they will think for themselves, and break every barrier which pride and pedantry would oppose to their progress; so just is the remark of Locke, that great master of the human understanding, that "God did not make man a two-legged animal and leave it to Aristotle to make him rational." It is impossible now to put an extinguisher on the human mind; the only question is, how to regulate this mighty movement, that it may be productive of most good. A broad commerce of mind has now been established, and education has received an impulse that is operating in every direction, and elevating the character of man as a social, moral, and intellectual being.

It has pleased the Author of nature so to form man, that he is forced to attend to the objects with which he is surrounded, and the most of his senses have been given him for this purpose. This world, then, is the arena on which man is called at present to act; the materials of happiness are placed before him, but his skill, activity, and knowledge, are required to enable him to make a proper use of them. He is called upon to obey this great law by the first instincts and most imperious wants of his nature; and it is to the difficulties he has to contend with under such circumstances, that we owe the development of many of the more ennobling qualities of the human mind.

To study the laws of nature, then, is to study the laws which the author of nature has ordained for the happiness and improvement of the human race; and it is not only to ignorance or neglect of the duties

which morality and religion have imposed, but also to our ignorance or neglect of those physical laws, that a large share of most of the evils of life can be traced. The physical sciences, then, which investigate these laws, and apply them to the purposes of life, not only form a most essential part of that knowledge which is most necessary to man, but every step we advance tends more and more to exalt our ideas of the wisdom, power, and beneficence of their author. It is impossible to contemplate the progress of society without seeing how much man is indebted to the cultivation of physical science. If we compare his first rude and feeble essays with the almost incredible energies which he now employs, and contrast the helplessness of the savage with the comfort, security, and intelligence of civilised life, we perceive at once what science has done for man, and can form some conjecture of what it may yet be destined to perform.

Amongst the different departments of physical science that have engaged attention of late years, Chemistry has taken a leading part. While it has been advancing to its station as one of the most interesting of the sciences and most useful of the arts, its progress has been marked by the singular nature and unexpected character of the new relations it has disclosed. It has indeed thrown a new light on the phenomena of nature, and explained a thousand mysterious operations, of which, formerly, we were completely ignorant. Chemistry, also, in unveiling the natural operations that are carried on at the surface of the globe, has made us acquainted with numberless agencies, whose continued action is essentially necessary to preserve the order of nature, and affords us a new display of that stupendous power and wisdom that commanded order out of chaos, and imposed upon every atom powers as necessary to the present state of nature, as the regularity of those movements that keep the mightiest orbs balanced in their spheres, so that, amidst incessant changes, no jarring element is allowed to disturb the harmony of the whole.

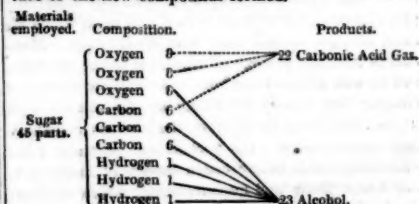
I may here be allowed briefly to state the peculiar claims which chemistry has to be considered as a branch of general education, and the important purposes it may be made to serve in the training of youth. It is not merely the knowledge it conveys, and the value and extent of its applications, but from the nature of its methods and reasonings, from the power and energy of the agents it employs, and from the striking character of the phenomena which its processes exhibit, all eminently calculated to awaken curiosity and fix the attention, the mind of the young pupil, instead of being forced to a compulsory exercise, is led, by the interest it takes in the subject, to exert itself in a way eminently calculated to invigorate its faculties, and to cultivate its powers of attention, observation, and reasoning. The study of chemistry, then, independent of the knowledge it imparts, affords a discipline of the mind of the highest importance in the education of youth.

Besides the attention which chemistry now claims as an important branch of education, there is no science which is more admirably adapted to form a pleasing and an interesting pursuit. He who is acquainted with chemistry has a new key to explain the works of nature; nor can he walk abroad without finding in all her operations, and in all the products of the material world, a new and interesting source of instruction and amusement. Take, for instance, a piece of iron ore in the condition in which it is usually met with in this country: what does it present but a dark stony-looking mass, uninteresting to any one unacquainted with its composition, and ignorant of the power which chemistry possesses over it? Subject it, however, to the operation of the blast furnace, and the metal immediately appears; and how varied are the purposes to which it is applied—how many are the forms which it may be made to assume! What are the tools with which the mason, the smith, and carpenter work—those who contribute so large a share to the comforts of life in every civilised community? Iron is the element of which they are composed; iron is the element by which they are made. What are the instruments with which the miner penetrates into the bowels of the earth, and acquires dominion over the mineral kingdom? Are not the pick, the axe, and the spade, made of the same material? In the hands of the agriculturist, it forms the plough and the pruning-hook. With the soldier, it passes into the sword, the gun, the pistol, and numerous other instruments of attack and defence. But let us turn again, and we see it in the cutting-knife of the surgeon, mitigating, by its severe yet wholesome operation, the most dreadful maladies to which humanity is subject. Look at it in the steam-boat, contending with wind and tide on the ocean; and in the steam-coach, see how it outstrips the fleetest horses. Look to it in the little needle employed in the finest and most delicate embroidery. Look again, and you see it in the beam of the mighty steam-engine, wielding with its single arm a power superior to the united energies of a thousand men. It forms the bolts that bind together the timbers of every vessel that leaves our shores, each in itself a monument of art, a moving citadel; it forms the magnet that guides their path across the trackless ocean, and the anchor that stays them in the storm. It forms the ink, and now even the very pen with which we write. In the printing-press, it is still more conspicuous, assisting in that great engine for the diffusion of knowledge. And in the watch-spring, it enables us to count the fleeting moments as they pass away. But

volumes would be required to tell all the purposes to which it is applied, and still we cannot forget that it can neither be extracted from the ore, nor applied to any of these objects, unless by the powerful aid of chemical action. And chemistry abounds with facts such as these.

Every one who is at all practically acquainted with the business of education, is well aware of the difficulty of fixing the attention of young persons, and presenting such exercises as are best calculated to awaken and strengthen the various faculties of the mind. From the vivacity of the youthful mind, it is continually attracted by external objects, and starting aside from the subject. This natural tendency, arising from the liveliness of its sensations, and the interest it takes in external objects, is no doubt implanted for the most useful purposes; and it most particularly deserves attention, that, with the view of converting it into a means of acquiring knowledge, and improving the understanding, the study of chemistry is pre-eminently useful. There, indeed, the senses are made purveyors to the mind, and facts and principles, deduced as it were by its own observation, give the greatest accuracy and precision to the new ideas thus acquired. Chemistry is a branch of knowledge which may perhaps be introduced with greater facility than any other science. The phenomena it presents are more striking; they are connected with so many objects of daily life, and farther, with the use of *flat glass apparatus*, there is no one who cannot be taught the method of performing thousands of experiments on a small scale, and at the most trifling expense, where, however, the phenomena are as distinct as if he were operating on the most extensive scale. Within the last year, since the use of flat glass was shown in a course which I gave in Edinburgh to one hundred individuals, all of whom performed experiments at the same time, and which was thrown open to the public, that all might see it in operation, I have had the satisfaction of seeing numerous students provide themselves with specimens of chemical preparations, and perform on a small scale, again and again at home, many of the most important experiments, till they became quite familiar with them.

The use of symbols and diagrams appears extremely well adapted for elucidating the explanation of many processes of chemistry. Formerly, these may have in part been introduced with the view of concealing knowledge, but the modern system of symbols contributes as much to facilitate the study of chemistry, as the introduction of signs and figures has facilitated the ordinary operations of arithmetic. The following diagram illustrates the system I have adopted in explaining the more complex cases of chemical action. In the detailed account of them which I gave several years ago, I have shown that they may be adopted in explaining every variety of chemical phenomena; and as they enable the student to trace with facility in the first instance, and easily recall afterwards, various changes that take place in the most important cases of chemical action, I have found, that, with their assistance, I have never experienced any difficulty in explaining, even to the junior pupils, those cases of combination or decomposition which were brought before them. In the present instance, the diagram represents the decomposition of sugar during the process of fermentation, when it is resolved into alcohol (pure spirit of wine) and carbonic acid gas; to the left is placed the name and quantity of the material used; its composition, and the quantity of each of the elements, is seen next, namely, three particles of oxygen, three of carbon, and three of hydrogen, the particles of oxygen being eight times heavier than those of hydrogen, and those of the carbon six times heavier; lines traced from these point out the manner in which each individual particle arranges itself, and the nature of the new compounds formed.



When the student has become acquainted with the chemical changes that ought to engage his attention, he should be taught to write them symbolically, as the surest method of making him so familiar with them that he will not be likely to forget them. After making the experiment with many hundreds of young persons, I feel satisfied that they take great pleasure in reading and writing chemical changes symbolically. If the symbols of the most important substances alone engage their attention, they soon become familiar with them. In examining the annexed example of symbolic illustration, it will be seen that, in two or three pages, a great mass of information might be condensed.

#### MEMORANDA.

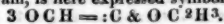
1. Each symbol indicates a particular quantity of the ingredient it represents.
2. A large figure prefixed to any symbol or symbols multiplies all till a new sign intervenes.
3. A small figure multiplies solely the symbol which may have immediately preceded it.



4. The sign = is translated chemically "produces" or "may be resolved into."

The symbols of oxygen, carbon, and hydrogen, are O, C, and H; but a dot (.) is often substituted for O in representing oxygen.

The theory of fermentation, alluded to in the preceding diagram, is here expressed symbolically—



#### TRANSLATION.

Three particles of a compound (sugar), containing one particle of oxygen, one of carbon, and one of hydrogen, may be resolved into carbonic acid and alcohol. The carbonic acid consists of one particle of carbon and two of oxygen; the alcohol, of one of oxygen, two of carbon, and three of hydrogen.

Five years ago, part of my time was employed in commencing a series of lectures, in which the introduction of chemistry as a general branch of education among all classes of society was made the principal object of attention; and in one of those courses, which was given during the succeeding year, a number of young persons were publicly examined each successive Saturday, that some estimate of their progress might be formed.

Several years ago, Mr Wood, of the Sessional School, whose system of education has excited so much interest both at home and abroad, permitted several of his pupils to attend one of the preliminary courses adapted principally to young persons, and the progress which they and others of the pupils made, encouraged me to make a trial on a more extended scale. Hitherto, however, instruction had been communicated principally by lectures, and the introduction of practical instruction to accompany these, so as to enable the pupils to operate themselves, had not been an object of attention. Further, there were no public schools for young pupils in which the study of physical sciences was systematically carried on as an elementary branch of education. Under these circumstances, considering that the practical study of chemistry could be rendered more accessible to all classes of society, my labours have been devoted for some time past principally to this object, and more particularly with the view of introducing a systematic course, in which the theory should be taught to a great extent by the practice of the pupils themselves, as presenting a better mode of inculcating the doctrines of the science, and that method by which their knowledge of it might be rendered most available to them in after life. This has been effected principally by adopting as a means of instruction the mode resorted to by professional chemists in some varieties of analytical operations, and so much cultivated by the late Dr Wollaston, and many of our most eminent practical chemists, where small quantities of matter and an exceedingly simple apparatus were used. The adaptation of the system of diagrams already explained, also allowed me to introduce subjects which I should not otherwise have attempted. Since the first course, which was given with the view I have described, frequent opportunities of testing its practicability have presented themselves. One hundred students of the School of Arts constituted the first class, with whom the introduction of the study of practical chemistry was tried according to the plan recommended, all operating at the same time.

In the Scottish Institution in Great Stuart Street, besides the usual branches of education, courses on mathematics, mechanical philosophy, geology, and botany, have been introduced in addition to the lectures on chemistry; and there also opportunities have been afforded to the pupils of carrying on a series of experiments during two successive sessions, each pupil on an average having performed about one hundred experiments during the course.

In Montrose, the alacrity with which pupils of all ranks and ages entered upon the practical department, will be admitted, when I mention that in one day they provided nearly one hundred blowpipes, with the view of operating by themselves at home.

In Arbroath, as well as in other towns, no less zeal was manifested. In Arbroath, indeed, the practical class presented a most interesting scene, fifty individuals from all classes of society, and of all ages, joining in the experiments, which they performed at the same benches. At Dalkeith, one hundred and twenty individuals came forward in the same manner, and have each performed a considerable range of experiments.

The experimental courses which the governors of Heriot's Hospital have allowed me to give there, have already shown that the system of conjoining practical exercises with the theory of the science, may be attended with the very best effects; and the zeal and activity with which the pupils enter upon the experiments unequivocally prove the interest they take in it. The number of individuals who are operating at present, according to the plan proposed for all schools and academies, mechanics' institutions, &c. amounts to upwards of four hundred; so that it can be confidently affirmed, that its general introduction has not been recommended without ample experience. In one of the classes, amounting to one hundred and twenty, a number of the different divisions included some boys from the High School, from the New Academy, and other seminaries of education; twelve from St Mary's parish school, fourteen from Mr Drummond's, and several also from the Lancasterian school. In some of the courses I have given, different teachers in this town have brought forward their pupils, each superintending his own division; and the progress made at

the practical exercises performed by the pupils, while following out at the same time the usual branches of education, will be the best answer to those who may oppose the early introduction of such select portions of the more interesting and useful branches of science as may awaken the mind of the student at an early period to the nature of that creation in which he is placed, and enable him to comprehend more fully those illustrations of physical phenomena on which the judicious teacher so frequently extends, as they present themselves in the various works with which his pupils may be engaged. The mental training which necessarily attends any practical illustrations of science, must ever be considered one of the principal advantages accompanying the early introduction of physical science to the attention of the young student; and the number of teachers in England, Ireland, and Scotland, who are now making arrangements for introducing chemistry into their classes, prove the deep interest taken in this subject by a great body of the population, and the practicability of its being done without encroaching upon the time required for other pursuits. In several private seminaries for education, elementary instruction in science has been attended with great success, and has not been found to interfere with the progress of the pupil in other departments of education.

The manner in which a knowledge of chemistry may be communicated by teachers, with observations on the value of this branch of study, will form the subject of another article.

### THE MERCHANT OF BRISTOL,

#### A TALE.

IN the reign of the good Queen Anne, Bristol was neither so large as it is now, nor was it so much devoted to business; but still it was both a large and prosperous city. Its merchants were active and wealthy; and, as rich friends are generally in high request, we hope the reader will not decline an introduction to one of them, Mr John Duddlestone. This personage was not in the highest order of Bristol traders; but his industry had gained him a respectable place among them, and earned for himself a handsome competency. In person he was stout and round, as becomed a man to be who possessed an abundant portion of the good things of this world, and did not scruple to enjoy them. With the exception of some little peculiarities which will obtrude themselves by and bye on the reader's notice, he was a good-natured, hospitable, and benevolent man, with which encomium we shall leave him for the present to pursue his walk to the Exchange, whither he was going when we stooped him to draw his picture and introduce him to notice.

In a parlour in our friend Mr Duddlestone's house, sat, during the merchant's absence on 'Change, his wife and daughter, together with a young man, on whose countenance, as well as those of the two ladies, a mixture of anxiety and sadness was apparent. "Children," said Mrs Duddlestone, "you are exceedingly young, and you have acted imprudently in allowing your affections to be engaged so deeply, when you were aware of the strong objections against your union, which Mr Duddlestone is likely to entertain. Indeed, John Evelyn, were Anne's father even to consent to the match, but deny you at the same time his further assistance, what would you, what could you do?" "Dear mother," said Anne Duddlestone, "I know my father's disposition, and his love for me. He is besides fond of Evelyn, and will either give his consent and assistance together, or refuse both at once." "And, indeed, Anne," said the mother, "I think the latter is by far the most likely result. But, children," continued the kind-hearted woman, on perceiving the depressing effect of her last words, "you have a long term of years before you, if it please heaven; and whatever happens now, ere many of these pass over, your prospects may be more favourable." Somehow or other, Mrs Duddlestone's words did not produce the consolatory effect she anticipated, probably from the natural reason that a prospect of happiness to be enjoyed at the end of many years to come, is by no means so agreeable as the idea of immediate happiness. "Oh!" cried John Evelyn, "how small an advance would enable me, and in how short a time, to fight my way to a station more deserving of the hand I aspire to! Mr Duddlestone has always shown kindness to me, though more, I confess, as a patron than as a friend; yet I cannot think, that, if otherwise favourable, he will refuse his aid." "I know my husband well," said Mrs Duddlestone; "and though I will make the application to him which both of you desire, still I have very little hope for you. Yet do not be cast down; I am your friend, and will be always, since I perceive that the happiness of both of you is in the matter. My husband, though he refuses just now, may relent in time." With this the lady rose, and left her daughter and Evelyn alone. Anne Duddlestone was a fair sweet-looking girl of seventeen, with a slight and rounded form, and an eye that on ordinary occasions was full of laughing brightness. Evelyn was a fine intelligent young man, of excellent character, but poor, having only a small salary to depend

upon for his support. The tête-à-tête of the lovers did not continue long; for after a promise from his fair mistress, which will be mentioned again, Evelyn took his leave, and in a short time might have been seen strolling on the neighbouring shore of the Avon, ruminating on ways and means of improving his circumstances in life.

While this had been passing in his domicile, John Duddlestone was pursuing his way to the Exchange. Before he reached it, however, he was detained nearly an hour by a circumstance, which, as it explains an important trait in his character, may be detailed. The cause of his detention was his being informed of a bankruptcy, by which he should lose a considerable sum, though not to an extent that at all affected his fortune. Now, if there was a decidedly bad feature in our merchant's character, it was the rooted dislike, approaching even to injustice and uncharitableness, which he entertained for all unfortunate bankrupts. The rigid inquiry which he set on foot into the one which now occurred, occupied him, as we said, for a considerable time, so that, on reaching the Exchange, all his fellow-merchants were immersed in the business of the day.

The rule to which John Duddlestone attributed all his success in life, was, always to prefer business to pleasure; therefore to transact this was his first object. Afterwards, according to custom, he walked about, chatting to his friends and fellows on the state of trade, and the affairs of the great deep. While engaged in an interesting discussion of this kind, a buzz circulating among the assembled magnates of commerce reached his ears, and put an end to his colloquy. Stepping hastily up to one of his friends, who appeared to be explaining to another the cause of the stir, he was informed of the reason. "It is the prince," said this individual, in answer to our friend. "Prince!" said John, "what prince?" "Why, our good Queen Anne's husband, to be sure, Prince George. He missed his footing on the bank of the Avon a short time since, and might have been drowned, had not a young man leaped into the water and extricated him. The prince is now on his way to the Exchange." As this was spoken, the eyes of all were directed towards one part of the Exchange, and in a short time the queen's husband made his appearance, leaning on the arm of another gentleman, and dressed in plain clothes. The prince walked for some time around the place, bowing graciously in answer to the respectful obeisances of the merchants, but speaking to no one, probably from his imperfect command of the English language, which, even after a long residence in the country, he never fully acquired. John Duddlestone, who was, as we said, of a hospitable turn of mind, and moreover very loyal, gave his first thoughts to the means by which the prince was to be best entertained. He was scandalised to observe the backwardness shown by the great men of the city, in not addressing the prince, and inviting him to an entertainment. On hinting this to others, he found that some were of the same opinion with himself; nevertheless, every one hesitated to address the royal visitor. At last, when the business hour expired, John was shocked to perceive the leading merchants moving away, while the prince still continued perambulating the place with his single companion. An idea then arose in Duddlestone's mind, which grew stronger and stronger every moment, as more and more of his fellow traders slipped away, that, unless he himself made some exertion to avert it, indelible disgrace would fall on the proud city of Bristol. The worthy man could not bear the thought of this; so assuming confidence, he approached the prince and made a respectful bow. "Have I the honour," said John, "of addressing Prince George of Denmark?" "Yes," said the personage before him, "I am Prince George." "I hope it will not be considered presumptuous in me to speak!" "Speak freely," said the prince, observing John's hesitation. "I was about to say that I was sorry to see that none of my fellow-citizens had been bold enough to offer some refreshment to your royal highness during your stay in Bristol. Believe me, they are loyal men, and grateful for the honour of your visit, and possibly it may be over-boldness in me that induces me to do what bashfulness alone has prevented them from doing. If your highness would honour my poor house with your presence to dinner, I should feel all my life both pride and gratitude. My name, an't please your grace, is John Duddlestone, an humble and loyal subject of her majesty, and a merchant of the city." Prince George said something smilingly to his companion, and then turning to the merchant, expressed in his broken English his sense of the courtesy—"But I fear, Mr Duddlestone," said he, "that I should give too much trouble." "No trouble at all," exclaimed John joyously; "no trouble at all, if your highness will condescend to excuse our humble fare." "I beg, then," replied the prince, "that nothing but your usual fare may be prepared; in which case I shall do myself the pleasure of dining with you." Duddlestone then asked permission to announce to his household the honour they were about to receive; after which, it was arranged that John should return for the prince, who had an intention of seeking out the young man who had saved him from the waters of the Avon. It may be supposed that Mrs Duddlestone was thrown into a considerable flutter at the news her husband brought to her, as the best of housewives would have been, at the prospect of such a visitor to her table on so short a notice. The transactions of the morning fled even

from the mind of Mistress Anne, who assisted her mother to superintend the hasty preparations for the approaching entertainment, with spirit and good will, joining her parent in every domestic task except that of scolding the flurried servants.

When John Duddleston walked along the streets of the city, with the husband of the queen of England leaning upon his arm, he felt that he had reached the highest—in short, to use a familiar, but never enough to be repeated expression, he felt that "that was the proudest moment of his life." He was conscious that he would have been the better of some one to remind him, during every minute of that honoured walk, that he was but a mortal. His royal companion was most condescendingly gracious to the merchant, conversing freely with him on the trade of the city, and asking many questions relative to it. On reaching the house, Mrs Duddleston and her daughter were presented by John to the prince, who, after a goodly royal fashion, now extinct, saluted their fair cheeks. After the first little flutter was past and gone, Mrs Duddleston, who was a woman of a calm equable temper, was soon restored to a state of perfect ease by the plain, unaffected manners of the prince, who gratified her further by expressing his high satisfaction with her substantial and homely fare. Every thing was to the mind of the honoured guest, and the merchant was for the moment happy. The prince related to them the particulars of the accident that had befallen him in the course of the morning. The person who had so gallantly leaped into the water was a young man, whose merit, the prince said with a smile, was the greater, as the act was the impulse of pure humanity; for the youth could not be aware that the individual in danger was a person of rank, or likely to reward him. "My preserver," continued the prince, "shall be rewarded, however, for his courage and humanity; and though he disappeared unperceived, while I was surrounded by the crowd, I have given orders that he may be found and brought to my inn for that purpose." Mrs Duddleston and Anne congratulated their royal guest, and hoped that no injurious effects would arise from the immersion, as he had immediately laid aside the wet garments. Soon after, the prince drank a glass of wine to the health and prosperity of his host and his host's family, and rose to withdraw. John Duddleston was so far charmed with the open manners of his visitor, that he proposed a bumper, for the second time, to the health of Queen Anne, for which the prince thanked him heartily. Before leaving the room, the prince addressed Mrs Duddleston—"Madam," said he, "I shall not hastily forget the hospitality of your husband and yourself. I trust we shall meet again. Farewell."

The prince found, on arriving at his hotel, that the young man whom he had sent for had been waiting for some time. The youth was conducted to the prince's chamber, and, after an interview which lasted for some time, he retired, leaving his royal highness to prepare by repose for his journey next morning to London; an expedition which, even so lately as Queen Anne's time, was a matter both of fatigue and of danger. The young man who had done the prince the good service, did not, however, retire so immediately to rest, and indeed the hour was not a very late one. We may as well make a merit of telling the reader at once, what indeed cannot be kept from him much longer, that the youth in question was John Evelyn, who, while ruminating on financial matters on the banks of the Avon, was fortunate enough to save the prince from the waters. Evelyn did not retire to his home, because, before laying his head on the pillow, he expected to hear the result of Mrs Duddleston's application to her husband in favour of himself and his fair mistress. This application failed entirely, because one of the honest merchant's strongest prejudices took the field against it. Evelyn was the son of a poor merchant who had died a bankrupt; a blot on a family escutcheon never to be wiped out in the eyes of Anne's father, and which had more weight against the young lover than even his poverty. We have anticipated some part of what was communicated by Anne to John Evelyn, because the young lady's regard for his feelings led her to suppress the true cause of their joint disappointment. Not being certain whether the old merchant would permit his visits after the announcement of the mutual attachment between Anne and himself, Evelyn had persuaded his mistress, with some difficulty, to promise, at their last meeting, to speak to him in private, and inform him of her father's sentiments. Anne, though lively, was prudent; and it was only from the consideration that it might be long ere she saw her lover again, that she consented to this. Evelyn, then, stood in the garden, in the clear moonlight, within a short time after he had left the prince, and the fairy foot of his fair mistress soon struck upon his ear. "How kind this is, dear Anne!" he cried, hastening to meet her, and lifting, unforbidden, her little hand to his lips. "John, you must be gone," said she; "my mother has told all to my father, but has made no impression in our favour; on the contrary, he is both angry and violent on the subject, and has just now forbidden me to speak to you for a long time." "A long time!" said her lover; "then after that time he may consent." "No, Evelyn, no; that is not his meaning. He thinks—he says that I am so young"—here the fair speaker cast her eyes on the ground, and even in the imperfect light a slight change from white to rosy red might have been seen on her cheek—"I am so very young, that mine may be a girlish affection, that will soon perish in absence

of its object." "And will it be so, dearest Anne?" "No, Evelyn, my affections were not lightly or hastily given away, nor will they be lightly or hastily withdrawn. But we must part for the present. I will break no promise with you, but I will also keep that which I have made to my kind parent. My mother is our friend, Evelyn, and time may befriend us also. Farewell!" "Stop, Anne, for one moment. I will not seek to see you till time change our prospects for the better. Indeed, I will leave the city for a short time." "Why, John, where will you, where can you go to; do not be so hasty," said the young lady hurriedly. "Oh, fear not, dearest Anne. I am going to expose myself neither to dangers by sea nor to dangers by land. Farewell for a while." A tear was by this time on the fair girl's cheek; regarding which tear, we shall only say that no handkerchief had the felicity to wipe it away.

From this period, all was quiet and monotonous, for many weeks, in the home of the honest Bristol merchant. He himself pursued his ordinary avocations with his usual diligence and success, and nothing occurred to disturb his domestic comfort except his wife's occasional hints about their daughter's low spirits. John Duddleston still hoped that the objectionable attachment would wear away from her mind, and he redoubled his kindness to Anne, which had the effect of increasing her hopes from her father's love, and of keeping her spirits always cheerful in his presence. The whole family, however, were soon aroused from this quiet state, by the arrival of an invitation from Prince George of Denmark, requesting the presence of the whole family at court, to be presented to the queen. Unlimited surprise was the first feeling of the objects of this unexpected summons, but as the invitations of princes are commands, they prepared to obey immediately, with a mixture of pride, bashfulness, and other feelings pervading their bosoms in such a way, that it was impossible to say which was predominant. This was the case at least with Mrs Duddleston and her husband; but though Anne had the usual endowment of curiosity, which cynics say is the ruling passion of females, a stronger feeling drowned all others, to a great extent, in her breast. Evelyn had not only left the city as he had said to her, but no one knew where he had gone to; no letters had come to herself or to any of his friends; and, in short, his disappearance was beginning to cause alarm, not only with Anne, but with all who knew him.

On reaching London, and announcing their arrival, the Duddlestons were conducted to St James's Palace, where at that time the queen and prince resided. The gentleman who acted as their guide led them into the wardrobe apartments of the palace, where John Duddleston was to choose, by the queen's desire, a court dress, previous to being presented. The honest merchant obeyed without hesitation, and made choice of a suit of crimson, which, whether it fitted him or not, made him, externally at least, like a denizen of the place. After this matter was satisfactorily terminated, with a sword by his side for the first time in his life, Mr Duddleston joined his wife and daughter, who had waited his attiring in an antechamber. An usher speedily appeared with a message, stating that her majesty desired their presence, and with beating hearts they entered an opened folding door, leading into the apartment where the sovereign of the three kingdoms sat alone with her husband.

It is not our purpose to describe the queen, her husband, or the grandeur that surrounded them; this was no public or splendid occasion, and the prince and his spouse were only anxious to be gracious and kind, not to be dazzling and grand. The queen received her visitors with the utmost courtesy and condescension, and the prince met them as if they had been old friends. The Duddlestons had the honour of partaking of a private entertainment, in requital, as the prince said, of that given to him. When it was ended, the queen, with a significant smile to her husband, asked the merchant if he had no favour to request? The worthy man replied, that he had abundance of this world's goods, and wished for no increase. Her majesty then, turning to the ladies, put the same question to them in succession; to which the elder replied in much the same terms as her spouse. But what caused the deep blush and hesitation that preceded a similar response from the younger? Of a certainty it was observed by the queen, who gave another significant, and, to the visitors, unintelligible smile, to Prince George, who replied in a similar way to it, and left the apartment. The queen then, addressing Anne Duddleston, asked if the young lady could remember no dear friend to whom the government patronage might be serviceable? The fair girl blushed still more deeply, but still responded tremulously in the negative; though that negative, we are bound in truth to affirm, belied her real thoughts. "I will find such a friend for you, then," said the queen, as Prince George entered the room, leading John Evelyn by the hand! "This," said her majesty, "is the preserver of my husband's life; and though no one here," glancing at Anne, "would speak in his favour, fortunately for him his own merits are sufficient to recommend him. He is, by this document," continued the queen, presenting him with a paper, "appointed to one of the most valuable crown offices in the city of Bristol. It is not my nature, nor, though a queen, is it my right, Mr Duddleston, to interfere with family affections, but this young gentleman has been in attendance on the prince since his

visit to Bristol, and is, I am assured, worthy of your daughter, to whom, as he has informed the prince, he has been long attached, and it would give my husband and myself great pleasure to behold them united." The old merchant respectfully and gratefully gave his assent, and her majesty placed the hands of Evelyn and Anne Duddleston in each other.

To this long tale we have only to add, that the family of the Bristol merchant did not return to their native city for some days, during which time the queen, at a public levee, related the kindness and hospitality of the merchant to the prince, and, commanding the object of her encomium to kneel down, placed on his neck the honour-giving sword, bidding him to arise Sir John Duddleston.

#### THE FAIR OF COPENHAGEN.

FAIRS—which with us have generally dwindled into insignificance, and in which, too frequently, merriment degenerates into profligacy—are still sustained in pristine vigour in many of the northern countries of Europe. There, fairs often last for weeks, and business is transacted to an incredible amount. At some of these great assemblages of people, amusement, as well as commerce, is kept in view. The business of the visitors is perhaps not so much to buy and sell, as to laugh. Some may possibly conceive this to be a very frivolous purpose, but that is what we cannot by any means assent to. Laughing is an exceedingly healthful exercise—at least so physiologists tell us; and it used to be a remark of the great Dr Sydenham, that he always observed the health of the inhabitants of a village improved after the visit of a harlequin. Be this as it may, our continental neighbours, who prefer merriment to sadness, are particularly careful of keeping up their fairs, or rural fêtes, as they call them. They in reality don't upon their fairs. The fair is the great event in the year, or the season. All must attend the fair—all must see the shows, the rope-dancing, the scenic representations, and every thing else that is to be gazed at; all must dance, and all be delighted.

I had once the good luck to be present at one of these great national assemblages. It was at Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark, and took place in the delightful month of July. At a short distance from this pretty Danish city, in a park extending some miles in circumference, in which are two royal residences, the fair was held, and a better situation could not have been devised, embellished as it is by trees, shrubberies, and all that tends to adorn the environs of a capital. For three weeks is this extensive pleasure-ground the centre of gaiety and frolic to the whole country, drawing to the spot not only the Danes in great numbers, but also the Swedes, and even the Norwegians, who cross the Sound in parties upon this holiday excursion. After the lapse of several years, the scene is still vivid and fresh before me. Beneath the trees, which shed a delightful shade, are spread numberless little tables, round which different groups are congregated, discussing the provisions which they have had the foresight and economy to bring with them. Shows and spectacles, in infinite variety, hold out their attractions to the lovers of marvels, and urgent and vociferous are the different competitors for public favour. Loud and swelling music, also, never ceases its joyful strains, and many are the couples who yield to its enticement, and press the green-sward in a lively dance. Nothing can give the mind more unmixed pleasure than the contemplation of thousands of human beings thus assembled together for innocent recreation, from which excess of every description is excluded, where no intoxication is witnessed, and where no broils or drunken rows occur to mar the general harmony, or to drive decent and respectable persons away in disgust. The prominent features, indeed, of all such assemblies throughout continental Europe, are, the undisturbed good nature of every one present, and the sincere endeavour of all to render themselves happy without any improper interference with others. All classes mingle together upon an equal footing, which no one attempts to subvert; and the labouring orders are admitted to a full participation in the current pleasures, without the richer classes feeling either degraded or annoyed at the intermixture. This is perceptible in public places, and especially, in the instance before us, at the fair in Copenhagen Great Park; a quiet and orderly feeling, which rather enhances than diminishes the universal joy and satisfaction, permitting the mind every rational indulgence, without any brutal and inordinate gratification. Therefore, not only the sons and daughters of toil, the peasants, labourers, artizans, not only the merchants and shopkeepers with



their families, but also the nobility and princes of the blood, mingle in the general sports. On the occasion of my visit to this interesting and picturesque fête, the princes Christian and John, cousins of the reigning king, pursued their way in the crowd, without attracting any particular observation, and seemingly as much intent in search of novelty and amusement as the most unsophisticated of their countrymen.

As my friend and myself passed through the various scenes of this ever-varying panorama—now gazing on the nimble dancers—now enjoying the busy work beneath the trees, where knives and forks were clattering, and tea-urns steaming, and where so many happy faces were grouped—now casting our eyes over the whole picture, so studded with animating objects crowded upon the vast plain before us, diversified by the national costumes of the peasants of Norway, of Sweden, and of the Danish islands—we at length stood before a booth, in front of which a brisk little personage was trotting up and down, loudly proclaiming the superior excellence of the performance enacted within.

As entertainment was our immediate object, and it was here offered at a moderate charge, we entered with the rest, and took our places amongst the spectators. The exhibition was of a theatrical description, and was given in a very pleasing and correct style. A simple piece was represented, in which a love-sick maiden, named Annette, pursues her swain to the camp, and through the toils of war, in male disguise. Her lover is in garrison in winter quarters, and falls in love with a young girl, whom he, regardless of the vows he has exchanged with his former sweetheart, is about to marry. The struggle between the pride and affection of the forsaken girl, who still remains in disguise, upon the discovery of the faithlessness of her lover, is made equally interesting and touching. At length she resolves to be present at the wedding, but not to discover herself until the marriage ceremony is performed, when she determines upon upbraiding the robber of her heart with his perfidy, and then destroying herself in his presence. The concluding scene arrives—the lover and his intended bride are present, exchanging mutual caresses, and surrounded by comrades and friends. The priest is in readiness, and Annette is in the background. Suddenly she comes forward and presents her lover with a letter which she has in the meantime written, wherein she recalls to his recollection his plighted vows. He reads it, and is dreadfully agitated. He takes the bearer aside, and inquires anxiously after her to whom his first love had been given. She tells him Annette lives only for him, that she offers up prayers for him night and day, and longs to clasp him in her arms. His levity now occurs to him in all its baseness; yet the attractions of his new mistress are present, and powerful. The struggle in his mind between duty and temptation is severe. Perhaps the latter would have gained the mastery; but at this moment of deep interest, a young and fair-haired girl, who had been watching the piece with intense anxiety, unable longer to endure the suspense which had for her every thing of real agony, suddenly started up with the tears in her eyes, and, holding out her arms in the most beseeching tone, she cried, "Oh! marry Annette—indeed she loves you—it is she herself who gave you the letter; and if you marry that other girl, she has the knife ready to kill herself!"

I never recollect a piece of natural eloquence so affecting as this burst of feeling. Every one present seemed to feel it. The imaginary woes of Annette became in a moment doubly interesting. There was not a laugh heard at the artless sympathy of the girl, but rather a hope perceptible that her appeal should not be in vain. A silence prevailed for some moments in the little theatre, during which the young girl, abashed at the publicity into which her feelings had hurried her, sank back on her seat, and covered her face with her hands. But the player, with prompt alacrity, yielded to what was surely the general wish, and, throwing himself into the arms of his former lover, he shouted out, "Yes, dearest Annette, I will marry only thee!" How truly he had caught the prevailing sentiment, was evinced by the instantaneous applause which followed. Whether the conclusion was such as had been designed, I know not, but I think no one was dissatisfied with it. The curtain dropped; and as we left the tent, I saw a smile of joy, such as looks so angelic on youthful innocence, playing on the countenance of the now delighted girl.

We now sauntered about the park without having any definite object in view, save the giving vent to the buoyancy of spirits which the exhilarating scene around was calculated to produce. The day had been very sultry, and even now, when it was verging towards evening, the air felt singularly oppressive. Yet the crowd seemed greater, gayer, and more light-hearted than ever, and not a thought was given to a dense and gloomy cloud which had formed in the horizon, and was spreading rapidly upon the wide arch above. At length a flash of lightning danced in our eyes, followed by a terrific burst of thunder, when the flood-gates of heaven being opened, the rain splashed down upon us like a waterspout. Thus taken unawares, nothing could exceed the hurried dismay with which the crowd rushed about in search of shelter. The carriages were at some distance, as they were not allowed to enter

within the circuit of the fair. The impetuosity of the rain was not to be trifled with. All ran pell-mell to the nearest hoots, and it was in no very enviable condition that my friend and I found ourselves safely lodged in our hotel.

#### YESTERDAY.

Oh! say, ye studios, grave, and old,  
Tell me, all ye fair and gay,  
Oh! tell me where I may behold  
The fleeting form of Yesterday!  
Where's Autumnal plenty sped?  
Winter, where's thy boisterous way?  
Where's the vernal floweret fled?  
Summer, where's thy Yesterday?

*Fugitive Poetry.*

"WHAT do you think of yesterday?" If you put this question to ten different persons, nine of the ten, in all probability, will take you up on the weather—that most tame of all topics of conversation. Should the present happen to be a wet day, yesterday is sure of coming in for a thousand compliments. "Oh, it was such a fine day!—not a single drop of rain—the sky was so very clear too! perhaps it was the finest day we have had within our recollection!" And yesterday is gone!

But this is a fine day, and yesterday was a very bad day. You could not stir out of doors for the rain. The streets were in a perfect puddle. You got yourself drenched to the skin in crossing from your own to your opposite neighbour's door. It was a day of miseries! And yesterday is gone!

Is yesterday no more worth thinking of than as its weather affected our clothes? Did it do nothing for us beyond causing us to furl or unfurl an umbrella? Was there not something about it that deserves to be remembered? Or did it pass over our heads as if we had been asleep? If it is not worth recalling, we may rest assured that all is not right with us. We must have been either too much at ease to enjoy life, or too unobserving to deserve it. A day lost is like a life lost: a thing of whose value we are ignorant, and which we can never, never recall. We have no power over the past. Let it once slip through our fingers, and it is useless to us for ever. It cannot even be classed among the things that were, for it has left no token behind it of its ever having existed. It has stolen upon us, and stolen away from us. It has left no handwriting on the wall. The pleasures or the pains that it brought with it have been swallowed up in the struggle to get, as fast as possible, to the future. A few more yesterdays, and we can give no account of them.

And so this is the manner in which mankind dawdle away existence! For ever complaining of the shortness of life—vexed that they cannot add a few more years to their fleeting existence—now hurrying to and fro not to lose an instant—and yet, in the main, actually tiring themselves in planning how they may kill their time—how they may destroy the present hour as an enemy to their happiness; and then, after accomplishing their purpose, falling back on their lamentations of the briefness of the little space of time allotted to them. What inconsistent beings we are! Never contented—always something to harass us! Slow to learn that the passing minutes compose the yesterday of to-morrow; and that those minutes are all that we can call our own!

If we be not responsible to the world, we are so to ourselves. It is this that makes yesterday often so painful to review. Did we make the most of it we might have done, or did we make any thing of it? Did it teach us charity? It takes many yesterdays to impress that on the heart. What good thing did we learn from it? It was only a yesterday, and one cannot learn any one thing in a single day! It is too near home to be looked back upon with pleasure, and we are too improvident of an untold or unknown store of them to sigh much for its departure.

Then, is yesterday of no account at all with us, simply because it noted no public event? It is perhaps an interval of wretchedness to some gone by—an escape of part of their existence from habitual misery. It is better to them than to-day, for their rest is only in the grave: yet it is a portion of the hope which sustains them in their uphill journey lost to them—gone with the one-half of the dreams that ushered in its existence! It is the link that connects with the present and the future. Although past, its experience is ours, limited though that may be. It reminds us that we have one foot in the grave, and it ought to tell us that we know not when the other may follow.

When we think of the past, we go back so very far that yesterday seems as much our own, and at our own disposal, as to-day. Time mellowes every thing—even hatred and ill-will. Rob Roy's lady says, that all may be forgotten but a sense of injury and a desire for revenge. These may rankle in the bosom, but there are other things besides, that cannot but be remembered. Speaking of mankind generally, a sense of injury is exhausted by time and circumstance; and the desire for revenge is so often blunted by what may be called retributive justice being visited on the offender,

brought into operation by the laws which govern the well-being of society, that we may safely say vengeance is no more: these very laws, in their beautiful working, having rid the world, in a great measure, of the cause and the effect, which, among uncivilised people, act and result from an unlimited licence being allowed to the animal propensities of our nature. Those things best and most worthy to be remembered have little to do with those passions which are supposed to act with the greatest violence on the mind. No man ever looked back upon his schoolboy days, and in the company of an old schoolfellow, with any other feeling than that of the most unrestrained pleasure, nor can ever erase from his memory the endearing attentions of his mother, or his first breaking-in to the stern duties of life. We never seriously regret any particular step we may have taken in the outset in the world, for it is connected with some associations that we would not want for all that we possess, and its very recollection often makes up for much immediate distress. Supposing that we have had nothing but hardships to encounter from the cradle till now, the distant past makes them assume a character the reverse from their reality. It converts weeds into flowers, and gives perfume to them too. Thus the yesterdays of manhood hold no comparison with the yesterdays of our youth.

There is another pleasing reflection connected with the past past, which tells against the more immediate past. We rarely, or never, make the most of our time and opportunities that we feel we ought to do. In youth, much of that responsibility which we are all under to ourselves, is taken off us by our natural or acquired guardians; but, left to our own resources, we have no subterfuge to flee to with which to satisfy the conscience. We are, in the former instance, so far irresponsible as others are so for us; but, in the latter, we must stand by ourselves. Thus the follies, the follies, the errors, the derelictions of mature years, come with fearful force against the self-judging principle within us, and often send us abroad to hunt after palliations.

Yesterday comprises much in its little sound. It is indeed the present when well applied, but the past when misused. It is something that we may even yet grapple with. Though severed from the chain of human existence, it may still be turned to some account. It ought to be a question of serious import with every man, What did I learn yesterday? Or what did I do for my own welfare or for the welfare of others? Let us try to say something more for ourselves and our fellow-creatures, than that "all our yesterdays have only lighted fools the way to dusty death." When we can say nothing better of them, we have "lived long enough!"

#### ARTIFICIAL DRINKING USAGES OF SCOTLAND.

WE extract the following account of the artificial drinking usages of Scotland from an able and well-meant pamphlet on the subject, by Mr John Dunlop of Greenock. We need only premise, that, while most of the usages mentioned are found in all parts of the country, it is only in some places that they exist in such force as is here described, and that there is every reason to believe that they are very generally on the decline, especially in those towns and localities where reading-rooms, mechanics' institutions, lecturing institutions, and other means of improvement, have been established. Even with all these means at work, however, there is still a vast deal to be done in the way of correcting habits of intemperance, and in abolishing those fantastic and vicious customs which our author adverts to.

"The system of rule and regulation as to times and occasions of drinking, pervades all branches of society in Scotland—at meals, markets, fairs, sacraments, baptisms, and funerals; and almost every trade and profession has its own code of strict and well-observed laws on this subject. There are numerous occasions when general custom makes the offer and reception of whisky as imperative as the law of the land. Most other countries have, on the whole, only one general motive to use liquor—namely, natural thirst or desire for it; but in Scotland there exists a large plurality of motives, derived from etiquette and rule. There has been constituted with us a conventional and artificial connection between liquor and courtesy and business; and this unnatural conjunction is not, as in some other places, occasional, but nearly universal; and it has become a perfect science to know its multiplied modifications in every department of civil and of domestic life.

Scarcely has the stripling commenced his apprenticeship in some towns, to the business of the joiner or cabinet-maker, than he is informed that the custom of the shop is to pay a sum, as an *entry*, to be disposed of in drink by the workmen. He receives charge of the fire in the premises, and at every failure of kindling, mending, or extinguishing at night, he is fined in a small sum, to be expended in whisky; failure in putting out candles at a proper time, or in watching the work at meal-hours, and a number of other petty offences, are met by small amercements, for the same purpose. At the ceremony of *brothering*, ten to

twelve shillings are sacrificed in this way; the first wages of a journeyman also are consecrated to the same unhallowed purpose, being in many cases the commencement of a course of inebriation, that ends only with poverty and death. If one leave the shop, his station at a particular bench is *reuped* by the men who remain, and the price spent in drink: sometimes six shillings are thus obtained. When furniture is carried to a customer's house, at moving, packing, &c. the employer generally bestows a glass or two. When winter commences, and candles begin to be used, masters give their operatives a *treat* of spirits; and whenever the smallest sum is raised by a fine, the men greedily add to it, and thus a nucleus is easily formed, and drinking perpetuated.

In the course of apprenticeship to other occupations, a sum, varying from one to five shillings, is at intervals levied. Among plumbers, for instance, when the apprentice casts his first sheet of lead. In manufacturing districts, when a block-cutter cuts his first block, he is bound to pay twenty shillings for the purpose of treating his fellow-workmen with drink. Among the cloth-lappers, and some other trades, the apprentice not only gives his entry drink, but at successive stages of learning the business, he has to pay drinking usage money; to all which payments the other workmen contribute a lesser sum, and often a debauch follows. *Entries*, either at admission of apprentices, or new workmen coming to a shop, are general among founders, coopers, tinsmiths, and others; and drinking never stops with the occasion of its commencement, but always proceeds in an augmented ratio. A respectable man, with a family, going lately to work at a smith's shop, refused to pay *entry*; he was maltreated, and finally knocked down and wounded; on the aggressors being summoned, they actually pleaded, in bar of judgment, before a magistrate, the *custom* of the shop having been infringed.

It is a rule of the latter trade, to pay, at the end of the apprenticeship, what is called a *garnish*; a stranger journeyman, who remains after trial, pays so much; each journeyman pays something on the anniversary of his becoming such; and it is believed this rule of the trade is general throughout the kingdom. These sums are small, varying from one to several shillings; but, as before noticed, the commencement being slender, is unfortunately no impediment to a debauch. When a journeyman enters a hat manufactory, there are certain rules and regulations, as to sundry matters, laid down, which, if he transgresses, he is tried by the other operatives, and fined in sums varying from two to ten shillings and sixpence; and to all these deposits the rest add so much, which, our informant states, is wholly consumed in excessive drinking of ardent spirits.

Journeymen at the iron foundries pay an *entry* of three shillings, to which the other men contribute sixpence each; all which is expended in the usual beverage. Apprentices in the ship-building yards pay two pounds of entry-money. When this amounts to a considerable sum, from the accession of new apprentices, it is spent in a dance, which generally ends in severe drinking, the results being most mischievous: as the number of workmen is great, it takes several days to bring back the people to their ordinary state of sobriety. In some places a considerable payment for drink takes place at the end of the apprenticeship. An improvement in this branch of intemperance has lately been frequent in Greenock, and the money laid out in tools in some building-yards. An apprentice there, when his time is out, occasionally gives the wages of his first week as a journeyman to his companions to drink. An apprentice and journeyman's entry at the sail-making business is, severally, a bottle of whiskey, and another when they sit down to work. At helping to unbend the sails of a vessel, a bonus of drink is given by the ship-master. But in some lofts, *entries* have been lately abolished.

In the cooper trade, the apprentice entry is five shillings, aided by a contribution of one shilling from each workman; and ten shillings at brothing, which is a foolish and barbarous ceremony, once very common, but now given up in most occupations: it consists in being ducked in water, beat, and made the sport of the rest in a rude manner. Among sawyers, when a couple come to work in a yard, strangers, the entry-money is six shillings; if one man come to join a partner, three shillings; when a log of timber falls by the carelessness of a workman into the saw-pit, a fine of whiskey is inflicted: the other men are entitled to defer assistance in raising the log till the fine is paid; two sawyers separating, pay one shilling and sixpence each.

In the cotton mills, when a spinner changes his wheels, or gets new wheels, he pays five shillings; to which the other spinners add sixpence a-piece, and the whole, and sometimes much more, is spent in whiskey. When a calico printer changes his colour, that is, leaves one department of work for another, he pays a fine in drink. Till very lately, from apprentice boys to the printfields, there was extorted the enormous sum of seven pounds sterling each, which, being put into a fund, when it amounted to about fifty pounds, was spent in a debauch, and a whole district, including man, woman, and child, was for a fortnight overspread with drunkenness, sickness, riot, and crime.

The regulations of drinking at the herring fishery are somewhat complicated. At importing salt, several glasses are given to each man; and at sailing for the

isles, the men are frequently put on board intoxicated: in hiring boats at the fishing-grounds, whisky flows profusely—those are esteemed the best employers who give the most spirits, and masters supplant one another by bribes of whisky. Each well-fitted boat, on arriving at the receiving vessel, gets a bottle of whisky, besides a couple of glasses to each man. The women who clean the fish have three glasses a-day: at the first introduction of this practice, they could not be prevailed upon to take above half a glass. In a slack fishing, a vessel having three to four hundred barrels, requires about sixty gallons of spirits. Thus educated, the fishermen, not content with their morning's supply, frequently go ashore, and, drinking at their own cost, spend the day in rioting and wickedness.

At agricultural *coups*, it is the practice of the seller to introduce spirits, and to dispose of it gratis to bidders, in the most plentiful manner; many individuals are thus led to lavish their offers in a foolish way, greatly to their own detriment. Foreigners would scarcely believe what is said of the cautious, suspicious character of the Scots, were they witnesses of a public sale of stock in this country. How respectable persons can shamelessly excite the emulation of a rousé, by means so exceptionable, is much to be wondered at; but it is the custom, and that seemingly reconciles to all monstrous things. Among cattle-dealers and butchers, there are few or no dry bargains; and if the business between the parties be in the country, they will go miles to a public-house, to proceed in and close the transaction. Our informant states, that when a grazier or drover proposes for sale either black cattle, sheep, fed calves, or pigs, the butcher alleges the necessity of *tasting* together; the seller then is his gill or two, perhaps more; and if a bargain happen to ensue, the buyer calls in his gill or gills, and they part *hearty*.

There are some cases when spirits are received or taken under pretence of refreshment, where a certain degree of ceremonial mingles as an ingredient; for it is believed in such circumstances, no other liquor than ardent spirits would be acceptable in point of etiquette. Some of these may be here noticed.

Rafters (men who conduct rafts of timber, and lay it up in ponds and yards) receive each from their employers from four to six glasses of whisky a-day. Seamen sometimes receive as much as four glasses each man a-day, and boys two. Government allows rum, duty free, for this purpose. Lammers (who assist in discharging cargoes of large vessels) purchase for themselves from two to four glasses a-day, as the job will afford it, and are paid in a public-house, where a money usage intervenes. Quay porters, in assisting at discharge of vessels, receive from their employers three glasses a-piece a-day; and a bottle of rum among them at the close of the discharge. At mowing hay, men receive two glasses a-day. Hired peat-cutters, the same. Hired labourers at stacking hay, the same. Joiners and masons hired by the day, the same. Tailors working in farmers' houses receive a glass before commencing work. Washerwomen in some places receive a regular dose of whisky, as if it were necessary as a medicine.

In towns, large masses of the operative population take their glass or glasses of liquid fire, regularly each morning in going to work; for this purpose, the whisky shops are put in order, and opened an hour before the time of work. In the winter season, a spectator in traversing a town an hour before daylight, may see the neat and commodious accommodation made for this purpose; the spirit stores being swept, garnished, and glancing with gas light. It is unpleasant to advert severely to the practice of respectable men (for such are found among whisky sellers), but few sights can be more appalling to the lover of his kind, than this punctual and brilliant array of preparation.

At rockings (an assemblage of young people round a farmer's fireside, for the purpose of amusing themselves by reciting tales) much whisky is usually dispensed. In one case lately, a glass of spirits was handed round to each five times. At tea-drinkings among the lower classes, it is extremely prevalent, after tea is finished, to bring in toddy, and even raw spirits, and to drink plentifully. This barbarous addition to the 'cup that cheers but not inebriates,' has increased very much within twenty years. At kirns (harvest homes) a profusion of whisky is frequently served out, and scenes of the worst description ensue, often ending in bloodshed. Reapers frequently get an allowance of whisky. I do not affirm that strong drink is dispensed in the proportions above mentioned, or used in every case and transaction, similar to those detailed, that may occur throughout Scotland; but I have reason to conclude, that rules approximating to those stated are very general.

The stopping of farmers on horseback or in carts, with their friends or families, at a variety of public-houses, as they pass homewards, occasions a sad deterioration of morals in that class of the inhabitants. We have been disturbed at a respectable inn, in the Carse of Stirling, as late as ten o'clock at night, by farmers and their families making their fourth or fifth stop from town on a market day; and at this stage, the noise, singing, and riot of these otherwise respectable people, was inconceivable. A principal motive of this practice lies in some of the party thus rewarding the owner of the cart for giving them a cast homewards; with others a parting glass is the excuse.

The tasting by young country females at markets, fairs, and sacraments, is most deleterious; and the national character of that class, from this circumstance

alone, is on the high road to ruin. The absolute necessity of treating females in the same manner, in steam-boat jaunts, is lamentable; both sexes are in this way reduced to a most awkward dilemma; for a girl cannot refuse a glass from her admirer, because this is the authorised universal mark of respect and kindness; and as little can the best intentioned young man decline to offer it, because he would thus fail in courtesy to her on whom he wishes to bestow pre-eminent honour. At registration of names with the parish clerk for marriage, a compliment of whisky is necessary to a few near relations and intimate friends of the couple. In some places an additional and larger meeting is held on the Monday preceding the proclamation of banns, where another mystery of whisky is celebrated, and the bride is presented with gifts.

Besides the profuse drinking that occurs on the immediate occasion of a birth or funeral, the general practice throughout the country is to give a glass to every one that comes into the house after a birth till the baptism. This is sometimes the sole reason for precipitating the rite; sober people wishing to dismiss the whisky jar as soon as possible. On the event of a decease, every one gets a glass who comes within the door, until the funeral, and for six weeks after it.

In some Presbyteries, the presbyterial dinner is furnished with liquor, not by each member present paying his direct proportionate share, but by fines imposed on various occasions. When a clergyman gets a new manse, he is fined in a bottle of wine; when he has been newly married, this circumstance subjects him to the same amicable penalty; a child also costs one bottle, and the publication of a sermon another. And as all ministers do not get manse, wives, and children, or publish sermons, therefore, in order to equalise matters, bachelors who have not been married after a certain interval, or those who in the marriage state have no family, or who do not get a new manse, and so forth, are all fated to be put into the list, and fined for omission, as others have been for commission, so that no man escapes. In short, many trivial circumstances are made the occasion of amercement for liquor: and a particular church-officer, unknown in primitive times, called the comptroller, is appointed to attend to this business, and so adjust the various mulets, as to prevent one member from paying out of his course; and thus a suitable equality of contribution is preserved among all the parties. Now, it is the method of all this to which we at present take leave to solicit the attention of the respectable and venerable class of men in question; because the industrious orders, hearing of these things, are thus led to connect certain circumstances with liquor, and are apt to impose a fine of whisky at particular opportunities, in imitation of their religious instructors—thus adding another occasion, where people are in some measure forced to liquor, by a rule unknown in most other countries, which exists besides, and independent of, the call of thirst, or other natural appetite. In some Presbyteries the above method of furnishing liquor has been changed. The rule in most cases, among operatives, is a bottle of whisky for a daughter, and two for a son. But this is only the beginning of a debauch, which would not have obtained but for the usage.

Of the rules of drinking among masons, we shall give only one, the foundation, or founding pint; it is a bonus of drink, varying from the value of a sovereign to ten guineas, according to the size of the building, and is given to the men by the proprietor on the occasion of the foundation stone being laid, or it may be some time afterwards. This, and the other usages of masons, a sad source of vexation to employers and contractors: the men are generally some days idle in consequence, and have frequently the police-office for their night's lodging on such occurrences."

#### THE BONNET-MAKERS OF STEWARTON.

THE establishment of towns with burgh jurisdictions and corporate privileges, in the course of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, as we have already mentioned in the Journal (No. 19), had the happiest effects in promoting commerce and manufactures, as well as encouraging civilisation; but what proved exceedingly advantageous to the people at first, was afterwards the cause of great injury both to traffic and intellectual advancement. It has been lately shown in our article on the House Towns (No. 219), that a time came when the great commercial confederacy formed by these free German cities, degenerated into a system of petty ambition and wide-spread oppression.

The institution of corporate trading communities in Scotland, was in the same manner advantageous at first, in as far as they served to withstand the encroachments of the feudal barons; but beyond this they never were of the smallest use, and rather retarded than advanced the accumulation of national wealth. Carrying our eye back to that period of history which succeeded the early existence of the corporations, we find a scene of barren, slavish monopoly. Every town with its own trading-district, into which no stranger might intrude. No one daring to trade but guild brethren and privileged monks. Vessels arriving from England or from the Continent with goods, and the ship-masters obliged



to carry them into some borough, and there offer the cargo to a favoured class. When about to depart with a reloading of Scottish produce, such as wool, hides, and so forth, the ship-master finding that he could not buy from any one but a burgess. Truly has it been said, that such a system entailed on Scotland, during five centuries—from the thirteenth till the eighteenth—the utmost poverty and wretchedness. It has only been since the relaxing of this narrow principle of trade, or since towns sprung up without such hampering arrangements, that any real good has been done in the country.

Now that this very remarkable corporate trading monopoly is undergoing a process of extinction, if not already extinct, greatly to the praise of those who had an interest in its survival, it is instructive to look back upon the times when it flourished in full force, and was considered the perfection of human wisdom. For this purpose, we select the community or corporation of bonnet-makers of Stewarton, a small town in Ayrshire. It must be explained that Stewarton has been for ages celebrated for the manufacture of woollen bonnets, and that species of cowls now familiarly known as Kilmarnock nightcaps. No place in the country, indeed, could compete with Stewarton in these matters, until within these few years, when industry and the pressing wants of mankind have aided in breaking up every monopoly of this description. In the year 1630, or thereabouts, we find the bonnet-makers of Stewarton, a small but powerful combination, supporting their own immediate interests with the utmost pertinacity, and with a cordial contempt for the welfare of others, that is amusing, just from its simplicity and total want of reflection. This combination seems originally to have been sanctioned by Sir Alexander Cunningham of Corshill, who is entitled in the old records of the society the "deacon heritable," and it held its meetings either in Stewarton or the neighbourhood, as the "Bonnet Court of Corshill." Up till 1730, the society must have prospered exceedingly, for we meet with no entries of consequence in the records till that period. All goes on smoothly and harmoniously. There are no disturbances, no jarring of interests. Glasgow was their principal market; and the bonnet-makers regularly visited that city, with a twelvemonth's manufacture of caps and bonnets, on the great fair week, held in the month of July. This fair is always opened, by the constituted authorities, on the forenoon of a Wednesday, but its proceedings invariably commence on the Monday preceding. Such, however, was the respect paid by the bonnet court to the Sabbath, that none of its members were allowed to enter Glasgow on a Monday under a certain penalty, seeing that the foregoing day must have been spent in travel.

In 1720, the society amounted to thirty-five members. The office-bearers were the "deacon heritable," a bailie, a treasurer, a keeper of the mortcloth (pall for funerals), and an officer whose duty it was to see the acts and regulations of the society carried into effect. Towards the close of this year, the following singular act is passed:—"It is enacted, that there be an idlesett (that is, a period of idleness) of the whole trade, beginning the 22d of December, to last till Candlemas—the poor of the trade being taken into consideration what they should be supplied with during the said time of idlesett—but none to go to the town of Glasgow with bonnets after the 22d instant, but only with those bonnets that are made before the 22d instant, and this to be objected under the penalty of fifty pund Scots." No cause is assigned for this extraordinary enactment. It was probably intended to raise the price of caps and bonnets in the market; for we find that all acts passed after this period have some such object in view. This being the first idlesett that can be discovered in the records, it may be interesting to add, that twelve members vote "work," and twenty "no work." It would thus seem that a month's cessation of labour was the reverse of unpopular. Next year the act is renewed, with this addition, "that the voters of the idlesett shall maintain the poor out of their own proper pockets." The year following, the association tries its strength in an equally summary manner:—"It is ordained, that in case any tradesman bonnet-maker shall take it upon him to desert the corporation without their consent, he shall forfeit the sum of fifty pounds, as also the benefit of the trade in all time coming: Further ordains, that any that may have already deserted, must return at their first freedom, under the penalty above expressed: Also ordains, that no bonnet-maker shall take upon him to teach the art of bonnet-making to any bonnet-maker's child, unless the parents be dead, under the penalty above expressed: Also ordains, that no young woman, after twelve years complete, shall weave bonnets, after this date, till the next court day, under the penalty of fifty pund Scots for each bonnet-weaving." The results of these strict rules and idlesetts soon begin to show themselves. The idlesetts seem to have been kept in general with scrupulous exactness; but several individuals are fined for allowing girls to work to them who have passed their twelfth year.

In 1732, five members of the corporation are appointed to inquire into the necessities of the whole trade, "and to appoint the constant spinners within the trade to spin to what persons they think proper; and, in case they refuse, they are to be discharged the trade"—those so discharged to pay a penalty of twelve pounds Scots for each contravention of the act. Thus the authority of the society is exerted over those who have no connection with it.

Up till 1737, we have a regular idlesett of four weeks in the year: the only innovation that we can discover being an act, "that none of the trade go to Glasgow with bonnets (after a certain date), under a penalty of three pounds Scots for each fabric." In 1737, a tax is laid upon the workers of caps of a farthing per dozen. This tax, perhaps, may have originated in a spirit of rivalry with Kilmarnock or other places, for it is put on for the ostensible purpose of bringing the caps to a certain weight. As a specimen of the summary method in which the tax-gatherers were allowed to go to work, we cannot do better than quote the act:—"The corporation do appoint that all caps made within the trade shall weigh two pounds, wanting one ounce, per dozen; and in case they are lighter, they are not to be sealed, as also to forfeit one shilling sterling for each dozen so made light. As also ordains (here follow several names) to visit the said caps, and affix a seal to each half dozen, and for which they are to have one farthing for each dozen so sealed; and in case they find the caps made insufficient, they are instantly condemned to be burnt."

In 1739, and following years, numbers of individuals are fined for making caps and bonnets without having first joined the corporation, or, as it is expressed in the records, for not having "entered with the trade, and given their *de fidei* (oath to be faithful) to the deacon." Complaints are made by the appointed visitors or inspectors against certain contumacious persons for producing *weel* caps (to make up the weight, of course), and carrying them to market unsealed: "all necessary execution passes thereon within term of law."

In 1742, the visitors are subjected to a penalty of one shilling sterling for every dozen of caps carried to market unsealed. A few years afterwards, this penalty is increased to five shillings—"the visitors to visit each other's caps."

In 1743, an act is passed of the following tenor:—"First, no bonnets must be made for one month, and no caps are to be sold within that time, except to the bailie and another person. The bailie and his friend bind themselves to purchase every dozen of caps offered them, at the rate of three pounds Scots per dozen, under a penalty of two gold guineas; but the same penalty is imposed on those who shall presume to sell caps past these worthies."

In 1744, it is discovered that the making of caps will be a great advantage to the trade, and they "therefore, with one voice, unanimously, agree that they shall make sufficient caps for six weeks; and whoever shall make any bonnets during that time, must forfeit half a mark Scots for each bonnet so made." It must not be supposed that these acts were only made to be broken. Transgressors are invariably punished with promptitude and severity. Every minute of the society's meetings is signed by Sir David Cunningham, and at some of the more harsh or questionable laws passed by the corporation, he writes "consents"—from which we may infer that these severities did not originate with him.

They who are inclined to boast of the superiority of Kilmarnock nightcaps over those of Stewarton, are not aware of the extraordinary fact, that the bonnet-makers of Stewarton, nearly an hundred years ago, considered it disgraceful to be named in the same breath with those of Old Killie. No doubt they had sufficient motives for believing in their own immeasurable superiority; the chief of which, perhaps, was the desire to monopolise the whole business to themselves; and it cannot be doubted that the measures they took to effect this were well calculated to drive spirited workmen from their own location. They could not hinder a person from going to Kilmarnock to work; but should he do so, and return to Stewarton, no one is allowed to employ him under the penalty of one pound sterling.

In 1746, a discovery is made by the corporation, of one of the most impudent frauds that probably was ever perpetrated; namely, that certain persons belonging to their trade were absolutely imposing Kilmarnock made caps for Stewarton ones, on the people of Glasgow! This must have fallen upon them like a thunderbolt. It was a new species of crime, which no one could have dreamed of perpetrating but the most atrocious monster. It was calculated to make them eat dirt, as the Persians would say, before the stranger. It was a disgrace to the graves of their fathers. That any man should be villain enough to buy caps in Kilmarnock, and sell them in Glasgow! The thing could not be tolerated for an instant. The law passed in consequence, for this offence, was proportionally severe—a fine of fifty pounds Scots for each transgression, expulsion from the corporation, and the loss of the freedom of the trade in all time coming.

Stewarton bonnets maintained their superiority in the market up till a recent date, and the Highland regiments were generally provided from that quarter. We may judge of their anxiety to support the high character of their manufactures, from an act passed by the bonnet-makers in 1756, relating to the colour with which the bonnets were dyed. It runs thus:—"There are some persons dyeing blue without indigo, which said blue will neither stand wind nor weather; and so we have called a court, and thought fit to put a stop to the same; and if any of the trade shall be found to dye bonnets or caps with any other thing than indigo, they shall forfeit twenty shillings sterling for each bonnet or cap so dyed."

Such acts as the following occur in almost every page of the records:—"It is unanimously agreed

by the whole trade, that there shall be caps made for the space of six weeks; and whoever shall be found working at bonnets during these weeks, shall forfeit five shillings sterling for each day's transgression. Said day, 1<sup>st</sup>—here follows the name of the bailie of the trade—"oblige myself to take in the caps at 7s. 10d. per dozen; and who gives them not into my hand, and shall be found to sell them down of 8s. 2d. per dozen, shall forfeit the sum of two shillings sterling for each dozen so sold; and whoever has sold them before the trade, is to assist me to have fourpence each dozen." The records close in 1772.

The power possessed by this corporation was very extensive, though perhaps not greater than that of the ignorant and concealed fraternities of the same description in other parts of the country. What appears most strange in the present day, the daring stretches of arbitrary or ill-defined power of this most insignificant body of men were submitted to with perfect patience and humility, no one daring to call its decrees in question. At length the period of enlightenment arrived, and a change came over the spirit of the corporation. In 1785, the members entered into a bond of community, by which they bound themselves to act up to a regular series of articles, composed with great care from the records; the writers taking advantage of the various acts therein warranted, modifying some of their more offensive features, but only drawing still closer to them the advantages of the monopoly. This bond is signed by all the members, fifty-six in number, ten of whom do not write their own names. But such a bond of union could not last. Several years ago, the society was dissolved, and the parchment, and original records of the bonnet-makers, sold. They were purchased by a stranger to the trade, for the small sum of two shillings and sixpence—not one of the wealthy descendants of the good old gentlemen who loved their idlesetts, deeming them of the slightest value!

#### PEARLS.

PEARLS are hard shining bodies, of a whitish colour, and generally round in form. They are found in the body and shell of a fish of the oyster species, termed the pearl oyster. It is supposed that the pearl is a diseased excrescence from the animal, from the circumstance that the great majority of the oysters are devoid of it altogether. Mankind have long held these articles in estimation, and they have been found more or less on almost every coast of the old and new world. The Persian Gulf, the shores of Japan, and the Bay of Condatchy in Ceylon, are the situations where pearls are found in greatest abundance at the present day, and where the most extensive fisheries are carried on. The Ceylon coast, in particular, yields in successful seasons a great produce, the revenue derived being sometimes nearly two hundred thousand pounds. In some years, however, the produce falls far short of this, and this deficiency is generally occasioned by the exhaustion, for the time, of the oyster beds. To prevent this, the bays where they are found are marked out into divisions called banks, of which a certain number only are fished each year, the rest being allowed to lie untouched. The fishing season lasts about two months, commencing in February and ending in April; and the particular banks to be wrought upon are put up to auction by government, and farmed out to the highest bidder. Previously to this, the banks are surveyed, and the beds ascertained to have reached a state of maturity.

The oysters are brought out of the sea, not by means of dredging nets, as in common fisheries, but by men trained to the practice of diving. They proceed in boats to the quarter allotted for the season's operations, each boat containing twenty men, ten of whom are divers, while ten row the boats and assist their companions in reaching the surface of the water after diving. Five of the divers descend at a time, and when they come up, the other five go down; by which alternation the whole have a certain time to recruit between each exertion. The fishing commences at sunrise, and ceases on account of the rising sea-breeze at noon, and during the whole of the intervening period, the divers pursue their hazardous occupation. To facilitate their descent, each of them has a weight attached round his body, or to his feet, in such a way that he can relieve himself of it easily. A bag of network is grasped with his toes, the right hand holds a rope, the left keeps the nostrils closed, and in this condition the diver fearlessly plunges in, and speedily reaches the bottom. Hanging the bag around his neck, he collects as many oysters as he can, generally about a hundred at one time, and on making a signal, is drawn up to the surface; the stone or weight which assisted his descent is hauled out afterwards. The length of time he continues under water is from one to two minutes, although instances have been known of divers who could remain four and even five minutes; and the longest period ever known was that of a diver who could prolong his stay under water full six minutes. The sea at the oyster banks is generally from four to ten fathoms deep, which is a descent easily accomplished by the divers. One boat, with the complement of men

we have described, has been known, when the oysters were abundant, to bring to land thirty-three thousand in one day, while at other times a hundred or two are the whole day's produce. The divers on the Asiatic coasts are all natives, trained to this employment from infancy, and so expert from custom that they will make from forty to fifty plunges a-day; but the exertion is so violent, that water, and occasionally blood, gushes from the mouth, nose, and ears. Some of the divers use no precautionary means whatever, while others rub their bodies with oil, and stuff their ears and noses to prevent the entrance of the water. They take no food while in the boats, nor till they have bathed themselves with fresh water, after returning to land. The only danger which the divers appear to apprehend in the course of their occupation, is from the shark, particularly the ground shark, which is a native of the Asiatic seas. Some of the divers are so expert in their movements as to avoid this enemy, even when they have been under water for a considerable time; but the chief reliance for security is on the priests and conjurers, some of whom always accompany the boats, by order of government, to inspire courage by their presence. Upon the whole, it must be admitted that few of the divers pursue their occupation voluntarily, but rather act under the compulsion of their employers and masters.

When the oysters are landed from the boats, they are deposited under ground in heaps, and permitted to remain there till they have passed through the process of putrefaction, and have become dry. They are then easily opened, and the pearls extracted. Sometimes, however, the pearls are in the bodies of the oysters, which are all on this account subjected to careful examination by boiling in water, before being thrown aside as useless. The oysters of the Ceylon coasts are of an oval shape, and a large size, being about nine inches and a half in circumference. A number of pearls are commonly found adhering to one shell, though the external size is no criterion of the number within. Sometimes from one to two hundred have been procured from one shell, while on the other hand it frequently happens that from three or four hundred oysters not a single pearl is obtained. This of course renders the farming of the oyster banks one of the most uncertain ventures in which capital can be embarked, though immense fortunes are occasionally accumulated by two or three lucky speculations.

The various operations in preparing the pearls for the market, occupy in Ceylon a great number of the inhabitants. After being thoroughly cleansed, they are rounded, and polished with a powder made of the pearls themselves, and arranged into classes according to their various sizes. They are then drilled and strung together, the largest classes being generally sent to the Indian, while the smaller meet with a ready sale in the European market. The operation of drilling is an exceedingly nice one, and is performed with great expertness by the black people. The drilling instrument is a wooden machine in the form of an inverted cone, in the upper flat surface of which are pits, or depressions, to receive the pearls. The holes are made by spindles of various sizes, which revolve in a wooden head, by the action of a bow handle to which they are attached. During the operation, which is performed with one hand, while the other presses on the machine, the pearls are moistened occasionally, and the whole is done with astonishing rapidity. The colour of the pearls is in general a bluish or silvery white, but they are met with of a variety of hues, transparent, semi-transparent, opaque, brown, and black.

The pearl fishery at the Bahrein Islands, in the Persian Gulf, is the most extensive in the world, but very little of its produce is brought to Europe. The pearls are of a golden yellow tint, and are held in great estimation by the Asiatics, on account of their retaining permanently their colour, whereas the white ones are liable to tarnish, and to lose their lustre. The oyster shells from this fishery are of a finer character than usual, and are sent to Constantinople, and to China, where they are manufactured into a great variety of useful and ornamental articles. Long before the discovery of America, pearls were highly valued by the natives; and the Spaniards, on their landing in the country, found large quantities of them in different quarters. The early colonists established regular fisheries, and a great revenue was derived by the Spanish monarchy from their importation into Europe. In one year, 697 lbs. of pearls were brought over, many of them of great size and beauty. From the fishery of St Magueriti, one was sent to Philip II. weighing 250 carats, and valued at 150,000 dollars. From neglect and improper management, the American pearl fisheries now produce little or nothing, and all that is procured is from the gulfs of Panama and California. A fishery of no contemptible extent existed about a century ago in the river Tay, but, either from being exhausted, or from the market being better supplied from other quarters, neither at this point nor on any other part of the British shores does any establishment of the kind now exist.

Pearls are found on analysis to consist of calcareous or chalky matter, disposed in thin coats or layers; an arrangement which corroborates the opinion that they are gradually deposited by the animal upon a small nucleus of sand, or other foreign body, which, being admitted along with the food, causes irritation, to prevent which the animal covers them with a gelatinous fluid, that grows hard by degrees. A grain of

sand is often found in the centre of the pearl, but many of the largest want it altogether; and hence we are left in doubt regarding the correctness of the theory. Whatever be the cause of the formation of the pearl, there seems little doubt that it is produced by an unnatural or morbid action; and it is not a little curious, upon the whole, that a little functional derangement in an oyster should generate a gem, which for ages has been an ornament of crowns and courts.

#### VANITY AT THE LAST.

Few things show human nature in a meaner light than vanity in the hour of dissolution. There are instances of individuals desiring to pass from life with distinction, to be buried in state; and the last thoughts are employed on the decorum of the moment, or in the anticipation of funeral splendours. It was no uncommon thing among the Romans for a rich man to appoint an heir, on condition that his obsequies should be celebrated with costly pomp. And we know of the recent decease of an individual, moving in a high rank in society, who bequeathed his property to his widow, on condition that he should be buried in a particular part of the country. There is a vanity in affected humility as well as in ostentatious grandeur. Saladin, in his last illness, instead of his usual standard, ordered his shroud to be uplifted in front of his tent; and the herald who displayed this winding sheet as a flag, was commanded to exclaim aloud, "Behold! this is all which Saladin, the vanquisher of the East, carries away of all his conquests." He was wrong there. He came naked into the world, and he left it naked. Grave-clothes were a superfluous luxury, and to the person receiving them, as barren of comfort as his sceptre or his scymitar. Saladin was vain. He sought in dying to contrast the power he had enjoyed with the feebleness of his condition; to pass from the world in a striking antithesis; to make his death-scene an epigram. All was vanity.

A century ago it was the fashion for culprits to appear on the scaffold in the dress of dandies. Vanity made it the mode to be hanged in the attire of fops. Some centuries before, it was the privilege of noblemen to escape the gallows, and perish on the block. The Syrian priests had foretold to the emperor Heliogabalus, that he would be reduced to the necessity of committing suicide; believing them true prophets, he kept in readiness silken cords and a sword of gold.

Odious! in woollen! 'twould a saint provoke,  
(Were the last words that poor Narcissa spoke.)  
No, let a charming hint, and Brussels lace,  
Wrap my cold limbs, and shade my lifeless face:  
One would not sure be frightful, when one's dead,  
And—Betty—give this creak a little red.

The thoughts of vanity, in the example chosen by the poet, extended to appearances after death; vanity is not inactive in the dying hour. But here we should look for proof to the precincts of courts, to the scene where folly used to reign by prescriptive right; where the ample means of gratification permitted no obstacles to indulgence. The foibles of the poor are bounded by their poverty; the vices of humble life are concealed in the obscurity of neglect and oblivion. To trace the display of vanity, triumphant in the hour of mortality, observe the voluptuaries, whom the pride of opulence has rendered indifferent to decorum. Enter the palaces, where caprice gives law and pleasures consume life. The idle fool has leisure for folly; and the fit lasts to the latest moment. Go there and observe the death of the vain and vicious. The French court was at Choisy, when Madame de Pompadour—a wretch who largely contributed to ruin the morals and pecuniary resources of France—felt the pangs of a mortal malady. It had been the established etiquette, that none but princes and persons of royal blood should breathe their last in Versailles. Proclaim to the gay circles of Paris, that a thing, new and unheard of, is to be permitted! Announce to the world, that the rules of palace propriety and courtly decorum are to be broken! Open, ye palace doors, for the king's favourite mistress! Ye chambers, where vice has fearlessly lived and laughed, but not been permitted to expire, be ye now the witnesses of the novel scene!

The marchioness questioned the physicians firmly; she perceived their hesitation; she felt the hand of death; and she determined, says the historian, to depart in the state of a queen. Louis XV., himself not capable of a strong emotion, was yet eager to concede to his dying friend the consolation which she coveted, the opportunity to reign till her last gasp. The courtiers thronged round the deathbed of a woman who distributed favours with the last exhalations of her breath; and the king hurried to name to public offices the persons whom she recommended with the faltering accents of departing life. The sick chamber was a scene of state; the princes and grandees still entered to pay their homage to the woman whose power did not yield to mortal disease, and were surprised to find her richly attired. The traces of death in her countenance were concealed by rouge. She reclined on a splendid couch; questions of public policy were discussed by ministers in her presence; she gloried in holding to the last the reins of the kingdom in her hands. Even a sycophant clergy showed respect to the expiring favourite, and felt no shame at sanctioning with their

frequent visits the vices of a woman who had entered the palace in the vilest character. Having complied with the rites of the church, she next sought the approbation of the philosophers. She slept no word of penitence; she shed no tears of regret. The curate left her as she was in the agony: "Wait a moment," said she; "we will leave the house together."

The dying mistress, still able to distribute favours, may ensure obedience; the dead are disregarded by the selfish. Hardly had she expired, but the scene changed. Two domestics carried out her body on a hand-barrow from the palace to her private home. The king stood at the window, as her remains were carried by. "The marchioness," said he, "will have bad weather on her journey."—What a moral might this teach the vicious!—*North American Review.*

**POPULATION AND SUBSISTENCE.**—It is obvious that if the present state of the world, compared with its state at our earliest records, be one of relative poverty, the tendency of population to increase more rapidly than subsistence must be admitted. If the means of subsistence continue to bear precisely the same proportion to the number of its inhabitants, it is clear that the increase of subsistence and of numbers has been equal. If its means of subsistence have increased much more than the number of its inhabitants, it is clear not only that the proposition in question is false, but that the contrary proposition is true, and that the means of subsistence have a natural tendency (using these words as expressing what is likely to take place) to increase faster than population. Now, what is the picture presented by the earliest records of those nations which are now civilised, or, which is the same, what is now the state of savage nations? A state of habitual poverty and occasional famine—a scanty population, but still scantier means of subsistence. Admitting, and it must be admitted, that in almost all countries the condition of the great body of the people is poor and miserable, yet as poverty and misery were their original inheritance, what inference can we draw from the continuance of that misery as to the tendency of their numbers to increase more rapidly than their wealth? But if a single country can be found in which there is now less poverty than is universal in a savage state, it must be true that, under the circumstances in which that country has been placed, the means of subsistence have a greater tendency to increase than the population. Now, this is the case in every civilised country. Even Ireland, the country most likely to afford an instance of what has been called the tendency of things, poor and populous as she is, suffers less from want with her eight millions of people than when her only inhabitants were a few sept of hunters and fishers. In our own early history, famines and pestilences, the consequences of famine, constantly recur. At present, though our numbers are trebled or quadrupled, they are unheard of.—*Senior on Political Economy.*

**SPANISH PUNCTILIO.**—Philip III., King of Spain, being taken ill of a fever and shivering in cold weather, a brazier, or pan with burning coals, was brought into his chamber, and placed near him, and, by some act of carelessness, was placed so very close to him, as to scorch him. A noble, who happened to be present, said to one that stood by him, "The king burns." The other answered, "It is true; but the page whose office it is to bring and remove the brazier, is not here." The consequence of which was, that, before the page could be found, his majesty's leg and face were so burnt, that it caused an erysipelas, of which he died. Philip IV., his successor, escaped not much better. That prince being one day hunting, was overtaken by a violent storm of rain and hail; and no man presuming to lend the king a cloak, he was so wet before the officer could be found who carried his own, that he took a cold, which brought on a violent and dangerous fever, from which he escaped with great difficulty.

**FATAL LODGINGS.**—A lady in advanced age and declining state of health, went, by the advice of her physician, to take lodgings in Islington. She agreed for a suite of rooms, and coming down stairs, observed, that the bannisters were much out of repair. "These," she said, "must be mended before I could think of coming to live there." "Madam," replied the landlady, "that will answer no purpose, as the undertaker's men, in bringing down the coffins, are continually breaking the bannisters." The old lady was so shocked at this funeral intelligence, that she immediately declined all thoughts of occupying the apartments.

**BREAK-JAW NAME.**—In the county of Argyle, there is a small country inn, bearing the laconic name of Druintighmhicillechattan, rather a difficult pronunciation for an Englishman.

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